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Surface-Plasmon-Assisted Photoelectrochemical Reduction of CO₂ and NO₃[−] on Nanostructured Silver Electrodes

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Electrochemical reduction of carbon dioxide (CO₂) typically suffers from low selectivity and poor reaction rates that necessitate high overpotentials, which impede its possible application for CO₂ capture, sequestration, or carbon-based fuel production. New strategies to address these issues include the utilization of photoexcited charge carriers to overcome activation barriers for reactions that produce desirable products. This study demonstrates surface-plasmon-enhanced photoelectrochemical reduction of CO₂ and nitrate (NO₃[−]) on silver nanostructured electrodes. The observed photocurrent likely originates from a resonant charge transfer between the photogenerated plasmonic hot electrons and the lowest unoccupied molecular orbital (MO) acceptor energy levels of adsorbed CO₂, NO₃[−], or their reductive intermediates. The observed differences in the resonant effects at the Ag electrode with respect to electrode potential and photon energy for CO₂ versus NO₃[−] reduction suggest that plasmonic hot-carriers interact selectively with specific MO acceptor energy levels of adsorbed surface species such as CO₂, NO₃[−], or their reductive intermediates. This unique plasmon-assisted charge generation and transfer mechanism can be used to increase yield, efficiency, and selectivity of various photoelectrochemical processes.

1. Introduction

One proposed mechanism to actively mitigate climate change is the capture and sequestration of carbon dioxide (CO₂) to reduce atmospheric greenhouse gas concentrations. However, the impact of this approach is multiplied if CO₂ could be treated as a chemical feedstock rather than a waste byproduct. Fundamentally, this is possible—CO₂ can be converted to a variety of carbon-based chemicals through reduction processes, the most promising of which is direct conversion to ethanol and other oxygenates.^[1–3] However, while there are several methods to chemically reduce CO₂—e.g., using electrochemical, photochemical, and biological methods—none have achieved both high efficiency and selectivity.

Electrochemical CO₂ reduction in aqueous electrolytes competes with hydrogen evolution and suffers from high overpotentials and low selectivity for highly reduced products such as hydrocarbons and alcohols. Moreover, the products

formed in CO₂ reduction depend sensitively on the cathode composition. While formate (CHOO[−]) is the primary product at many metal electrodes,^[4,5] silver (Ag) and gold (Au) chiefly promote the formation of carbon monoxide (CO).^[5,6] Copper (Cu) is unique among the metals as a catalyst for CO₂ electroreduction because it yields multiple commercially valuable products, including methane, ethylene, and ethanol.^[1,7,8]

Although some metal electrodes have proven selective CO₂ reduction to formate or CO (a valuable Fischer-Tropsch feedstock), they tend to operate at high overpotentials, which decreases energy efficiency and selectivity versus the hydrogen evolution reaction.^[4–6] An effective way to lower the kinetic barrier for CO₂ reduction is photoactivation by modifying the binding energy of the adsorbed reaction intermediates and/or by facilitating charge transfer via photoexcited charge carriers. Silver is particularly well suited for such photoactivation because the excitation of surface plasmons at this metal occurs at 3.6 eV (344 nm) and overlaps with the solar spectrum.^[9,10] By altering the size and shape of nanoscale features in Ag electrodes, their plasmon resonance can be tuned throughout the UV–vis–NIR region,^[10] which is easily accessible to optical measurements.

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Previous studies have shown that plasmonically excited hot-carriers^[11,12] can be injected into the molecular orbitals (MOs) of nearby acceptors.^[3,4,7,13] Precisely designed and engineered nanostructures exhibiting strong localized surface plasmon resonances (LSPR) have been used as well-defined photocatalysts to promote the hot-carrier-assisted mechanism of hydrogen dissociation^[14,15] and water splitting.^[9,16] Plasmonic hot-carrier excitation and emission along with the strong local electric fields produced by surface plasmons on Ag may open new mechanistic pathways for CO₂ reduction by altering the interaction between the electrode surface and electron acceptor species such as adsorbed CO₂ and COOH_{ads}.^[17,18] In fact, early reports by Kostecki and Augustynski^[19–21] revealed the existence of unusually large steady-state cathodic photo-currents on illuminated roughened Ag electrodes in CO₂-saturated or nitrate (NO₃[−])-containing aqueous solutions. These roughened Ag electrodes exhibit a sharp photoemissive yield maximum at 3.6 eV corresponding to the surface plasmon resonance energy in Ag. Illumination of the Ag electrode with a broadband UV–vis light source reduced the overpotential of CO₂ reduction by ≈0.5 V and significantly increased the rate and faradaic efficiency (FE) of CO formation. It has been postulated that these beneficial effects result from the photoexcitation of surface plasmons that then decay to produce excited (“hot”) electrons and holes in the vicinity of the Ag surface.^[10,11] However, the exact mechanism of plasmon-assisted electrochemical reduction of CO₂ or NO₃[−] remains unknown.

2. Photoelectrochemical Reduction of CO₂

Although photoelectrochemical CO₂ reduction on an electrochemically roughened Ag electrode in aqueous electrolytes has been demonstrated,^[20,21] a more precisely defined Ag electrode surface morphology is required to understand the mechanism of photocurrent generation and the nature of electrode-adsorbate interactions. In this study, electrodes with two sizes of hexagonally arrayed 180 or 75 nm Ag nanopillars (AgPyr) (Figure 1) were fabricated using nanosphere lithography^[22] (see the Experimental Section and the Supporting Information for technical details related to electrode fabrication, photoelectrochemical, and UV–vis total reflectance measurements). Finite element method (FEM) simulations of the LSPR on the Ag pillars show that upon optical excitation, the electric field is maximized at the apex of the nanopillars (Figure 1e,f and Figure S3, Supporting Information). The photocatalytic activity of the illuminated Ag nanopillars used for photoelectrochemical reduction of CO₂ or NO₃[−] was compared to a smooth (Ag film deposited on glass) and an electrochemically roughened Ag foil electrode.^[20,21] Electrochemically roughened Ag and 180 nm AgPyr have similar roughness factors whereas 75 nm AgPyr has significantly higher surface area than the other three electrodes as determined by double layer capacitance measurements (Table S1, Supporting Information).

2.1. Linear Sweep Voltammetry (LSV)

Current density (*J*, current per geometric surface area of the electrode) was measured as a function of potential for the “dark”

and illuminated Ag electrodes during a LSV scan, using near-UV–vis light chopped at 3 Hz (Figure 2). A square wave current response is the result of the photocurrent generation upon the intermittent illumination (Figure S5, Supporting Information). Of note, the “dark” current and photocurrent profiles were reproducible and stable over time for all the electrodes (Figure S7, Supporting Information). Interestingly, the overall current (*J*) in the Ar-saturated electrolyte is much higher than in the presence of CO₂ (Figure 2a), indicating that the ongoing reduction of CO₂ results in suppression of the hydrogen evolution reaction via possible high surface coverage of CO₂ or reduction intermediates. Moreover, the observed current densities are not directly proportional to the surface roughness, implying that vigorous mechanical stirring and continuous gas bubbling of CO₂ through the electrolyte could be responsible for the observed current inconsistency during the LSV measurements.

The photocurrent density (*J_{ph}*) in CO₂-saturated electrolyte was extracted from the overall current during the LSV scans (Figure 2b) by using a lock-in amplifier synchronized with the frequency of the light chopper. The photocurrent observed at all four Ag electrodes exhibits a maximum at −1.1 V versus reversible hydrogen electrode (RHE). Interestingly, the *J_{ph}* peak potential coincides with the maximum Faradaic efficiency of CO formation at the silver electrode in dark conditions,^[23] suggesting that the plasmonic hot-carriers contribute to the electroreduction of CO₂ and formation of CO.

The maximum *J_{ph}* on the 75 nm AgPyr electrode is significantly higher than on the other Ag electrodes (Table 1). Intriguingly, the photocurrent on the 180 nm AgPyr is twice that of the electrochemically roughened Ag, although their roughness factors are similar. Additionally, the magnitude of *J_{ph}* at −1.1 V observed on the 75 nm AgPyr electrode makes up a larger fraction (≈30%) of the overall current than the *J_{ph}* on the other electrodes (Table 1). This observation suggests that the specific size and geometry of the well-defined pyramid nanostructures is the origin of the enhanced photocurrent from the AgPyr samples (as compared to the random features on roughened Ag), in line with our hypothesis that these pyramidal structures should be plasmonically active.

The observed “resonant-like” behavior of *J_{ph}* at −1.1 V could be associated with the surface plasmon-enhanced hot-electron generation and the surface coverage and binding strength of adsorbed reactants (H₂O, H₃O⁺, CO₂) or reaction intermediates (e.g., CO₂[−], COOH, C(OH)₂[−], COH, and CH=O)^[24] as a function of applied potential. LSV measurements on the Ag nanopillar electrodes in Ar-saturated electrolyte with no CO₂ present show that *J_{ph}* is negligible compared to similar measurements in a CO₂-saturated electrolyte (Figure 2b). The significant decrease of the photocurrent in the absence of CO₂ and its overlap with the CO formation rate in the presence of CO₂^[23] indicate that the photocurrent is primarily related to CO₂ rather than water reduction. This implies that either adsorbed CO₂ or related adsorbed intermediate species are the likely hot electron scavengers that contribute to the observed photocurrent. This observation is also consistent with the observed shift of the *J_{ph}* onset from −0.75 V for the smooth Ag electrode to −0.32 V for 75 nm AgPyr (Figure 2b), which indicates a notable decrease in CO₂ reduction overpotential.^[25] The reduction in *J_{ph}* onset potential upon illumination is likely a result of two plasmonic effects: 1) The improved generation of excited

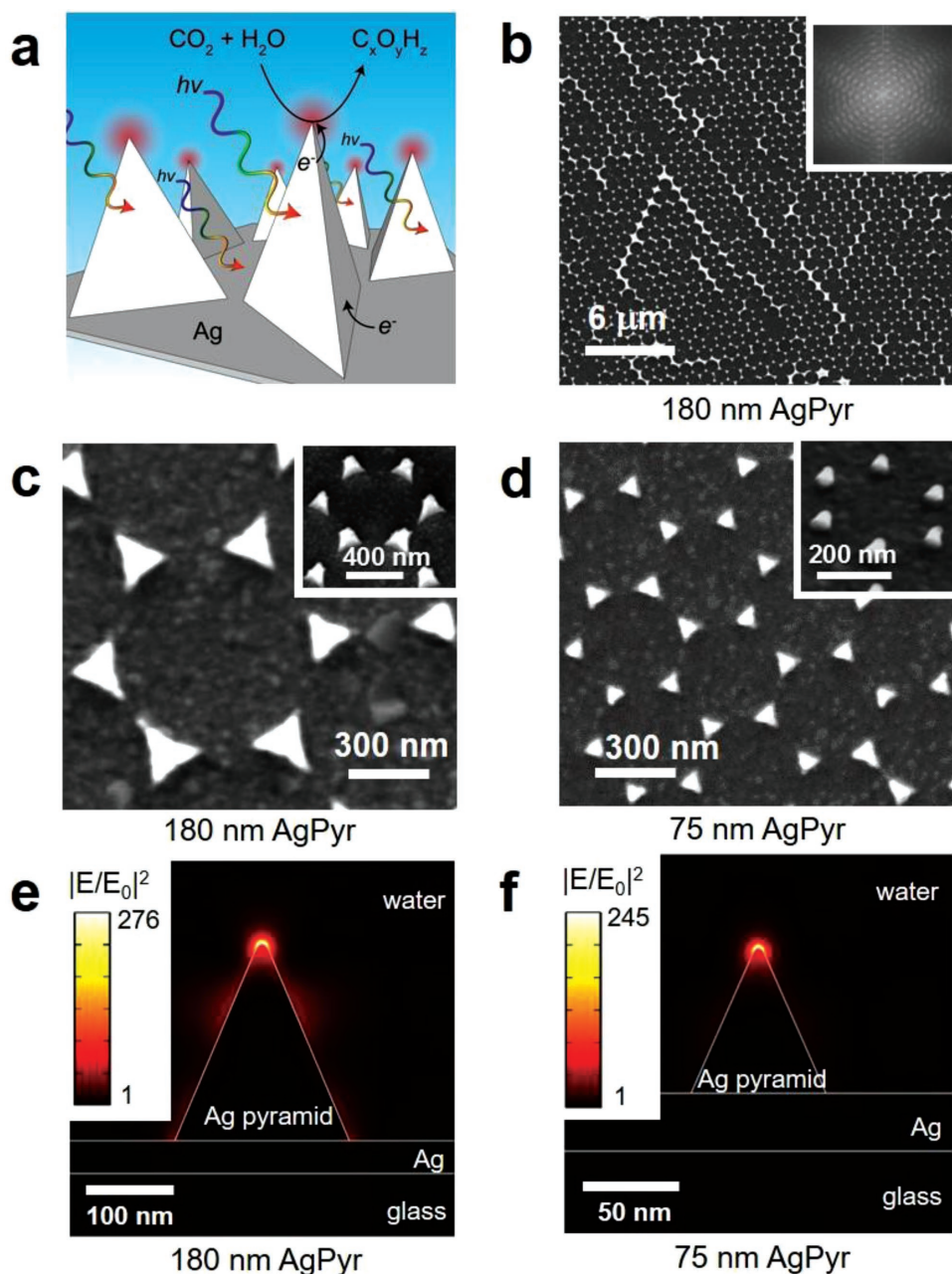


Figure 1. Ag nanopyramid electrodes. a) A graphic depiction of photoelectrochemical reduction on plasmonically active Ag nanopyramids. b) Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) image of a 180 nm AgPyr electrode. Inset shows the fast Fourier transform (FFT) of the SEM image to confirm the periodicity. SEM images of c) 180 nm AgPyr and d) 75 nm AgPyr. The insets show 45° tilted SEM images. Local electric field distributions ($|E/E_0|^2$) simulated by finite element method (COMSOL) are shown for e) 180 nm AgPyr at 650 nm and f) 75 nm AgPyr at 350 nm.

electrons with sufficient energy to be injected into surface adsorbed species at lower overpotentials and 2) surface-plasmon-induced localized enhancements in electric fields at locations where charge injection occurs (i.e., at the pyramid tips).

2.2. Incident Photon-to-Current Efficiency (IPCE)

To understand the effect of plasmonic hot-electrons on the mechanism of electrochemical CO_2 reduction, IPCE as a Scanning

Electron Microscopy function of applied potential and incident light wavelength was measured in CO_2 - and Ar-saturated 0.1 M NaClO_4 aqueous electrolyte. IPCE measurements in Ar-saturated electrolyte showed negligible photocurrent (Figure S10, Supporting Information). The IPCE plots for both 180 nm AgPyr and 75 nm AgPyr electrodes measured in CO_2 -saturated electrolyte (Figure 3) exhibit a resonant peak at 360–380 nm, i.e., in the range of energies corresponding to surface plasmons on silver, as it was previously observed on a roughened silver electrode.^[21] This is supported by the absorbance spectrum

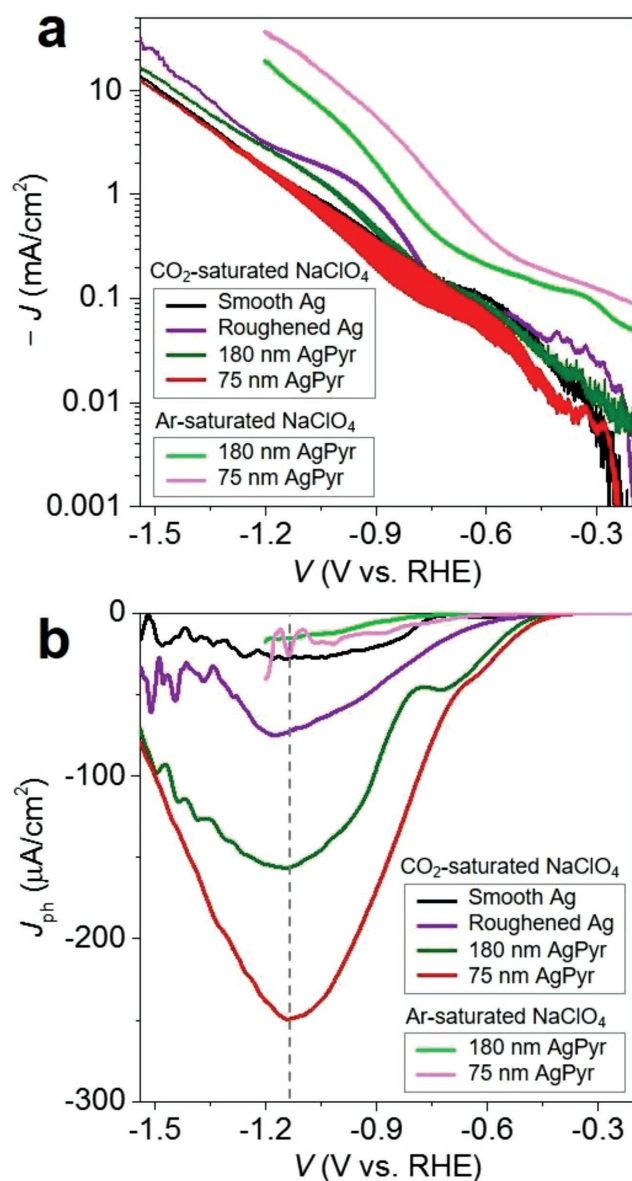


Figure 2. Total cathodic current (J) and photocurrent densities (J_{ph}) in CO_2 - or Ar-saturated 0.1 M NaClO_4 . a) J and b) J_{ph} under modulated illumination (3 Hz) on smooth Ag, roughened Ag, 180 nm AgPyr, and 75 nm AgPyr electrodes. Cathodic sweep rate was 5 mV s^{-1} for all measurements.

of a 75 nm AgPyr electrode shown in Figure S10 in the Supporting Information. The intensity of the IPCE peak at 360 nm increases as the potential becomes more negative, reaching a

Table 1. CO_2 reduction activity metrics at -1.1 V versus RHE.

Electrode	Dark current density, J [mA cm^{-2}]	Photocurrent density, J_{ph} [mA cm^{-2}]	J_{ph}/J
Smooth Ag	-1.1	-0.03	2.5%
Roughened Ag	-2.2	-0.07	3.2%
180 nm AgPyr	-1.7	-0.15	8.8%
75 nm AgPyr	-0.8	-0.25	29%

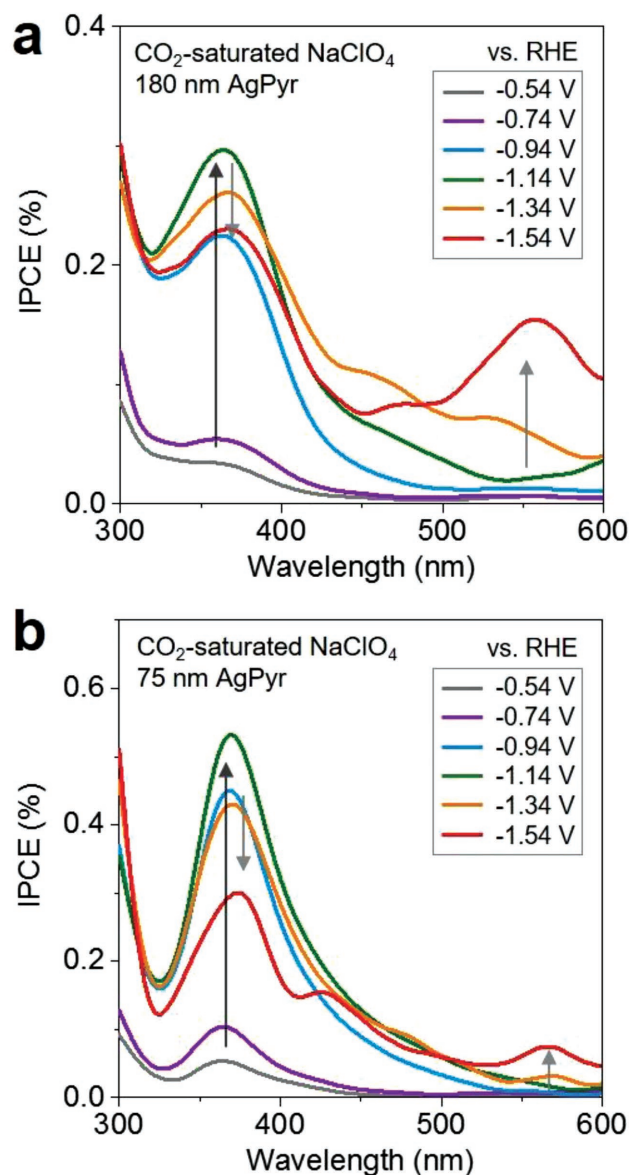


Figure 3. IPCE measured as a function of applied potential in CO_2 -saturated 0.1 M NaClO_4 . IPCE measurements were performed in CO_2 -saturated NaClO_4 for a) 180 nm AgPyr and b) 75 nm AgPyr. The arrows indicate the increase and decrease in IPCE amplitudes at 360 and 550 nm with decreasing electrode potential.

maximum at -1.1 V , after which it decreases at more negative potentials. Note that the potential maximum for the 360 nm peak matches the potential maxima for the overall photocurrent and for CO production. Thus, the 360 nm peak in the IPCE is likely attributed to CO generation.

At potentials more cathodic than -1.1 V , the peak at 360 nm shifts slightly toward longer wavelengths and another major peak emerges at 550 nm for both nanopyrnid electrodes along with additional peaks either at 430 nm for the 75 nm AgPyr electrode or 470 nm for the 180 nm AgPyr electrode (Figure 3). We attribute the emergence of these new peaks at potentials more negative than -1.1 V to the likely formation and subsequent

photoreduction of new intermediates upon further reduction of CO. Previous reports of dark CO₂ reduction at smooth Ag electrodes at these potentials observed the formation of small amounts of methane (CH₄), methanol (CH₃OH), or ethanol (C₂H₅OH) through the transient intermediates CH=O_{ads} and C–OH_{ads}.^[23,26] The IPCE peaks at 430, 470, and 550 nm could be related to photoassisted hot-electron injection into these adsorbates. Our observations from IPCE measurements indicate that the photon energy level at which excited charge injection occurs is dependent on three factors: 1) the electrode's plasmon resonance energy, 2) the MO energies of the surface acceptors (e.g., CO₂ or reaction intermediates), and 3) the electrode potential.

3. Photoelectrochemical Reduction of NO₃[−]

To further validate the importance of these factors on excited charge injection from a photoelectrode to an adsorbate, a series of similar experiments at AgPyr photoelectrodes was performed in the presence of NO₃[−] ions, which are effective acceptors of photo-generated excited electrons in electrochemical systems.^[20,27] The cathodic currents (>100 mA cm^{−2} at −1.1 V, inset of Figure 4a) that correspond to NO₃[−] reduction to NO₂[−] are more than two orders of magnitude higher than the CO₂ reduction current (≈1 mA cm^{−2} at −1.1 V, Figure 2a). This is easily rationalized by the relatively high concentration of NO₃[−] (1 M) in the electrolyte compared to the saturated concentration of CO₂ (≈30 × 10^{−3} M) in the 1 M NaClO₄ aqueous electrolyte. On the other hand, photocurrents measured on AgPyr electrodes in 1 M NaNO₃ electrolyte (Figure 4a) are of the same magnitude as those observed in the CO₂-saturated electrolyte (Figure 2b). Interestingly, the photocurrent observed in the NO₃[−] solution displays two maxima at −1.0 and −1.2 V. The resulting product at −1.0 V is nitrite (NO₂[−]) with near 100% FE, as determined by titration analysis^[28] (see the Supporting Information for description of titration analysis), which is in good agreement with the results from earlier reports.^[29,30] The photocurrent peak at −1.2 V is likely related to production of nitric oxide (NO) or NH₄⁺ on silver.^[30]

IPCE measurements in the NO₃[−]-containing electrolyte on the 180 nm AgPyr and 75 nm AgPyr electrodes lack the resonant peak at 360 nm, which was clearly observed in the CO₂-saturated electrolyte (Figure 4b,c). In fact, new maxima emerge at 400, 530, and 620 nm for both AgPyr electrodes, with the peak intensity varying significantly with the applied potential. The new peaks likely correspond to the MOs of adsorbates related to NO₃[−] reduction, which are at different energy levels than CO₂ intermediates. The distinct difference between photoactive wavelengths in CO₂ and NO₃[−] reduction confirms that the resonant-like behavior depends not only on the plasmon resonance of the Ag electrodes but also on the chemical nature of the hot-electron acceptors present at the electrode surface and the excited electronic states generated upon illumination.

4. Plasmon-Generated Charge Carrier Injection Mechanism at Potential-Biased Electrodes

Photoelectrochemical reduction measurements in the same electrolyte with the addition of CO₂ or NO₃[−] yield notable

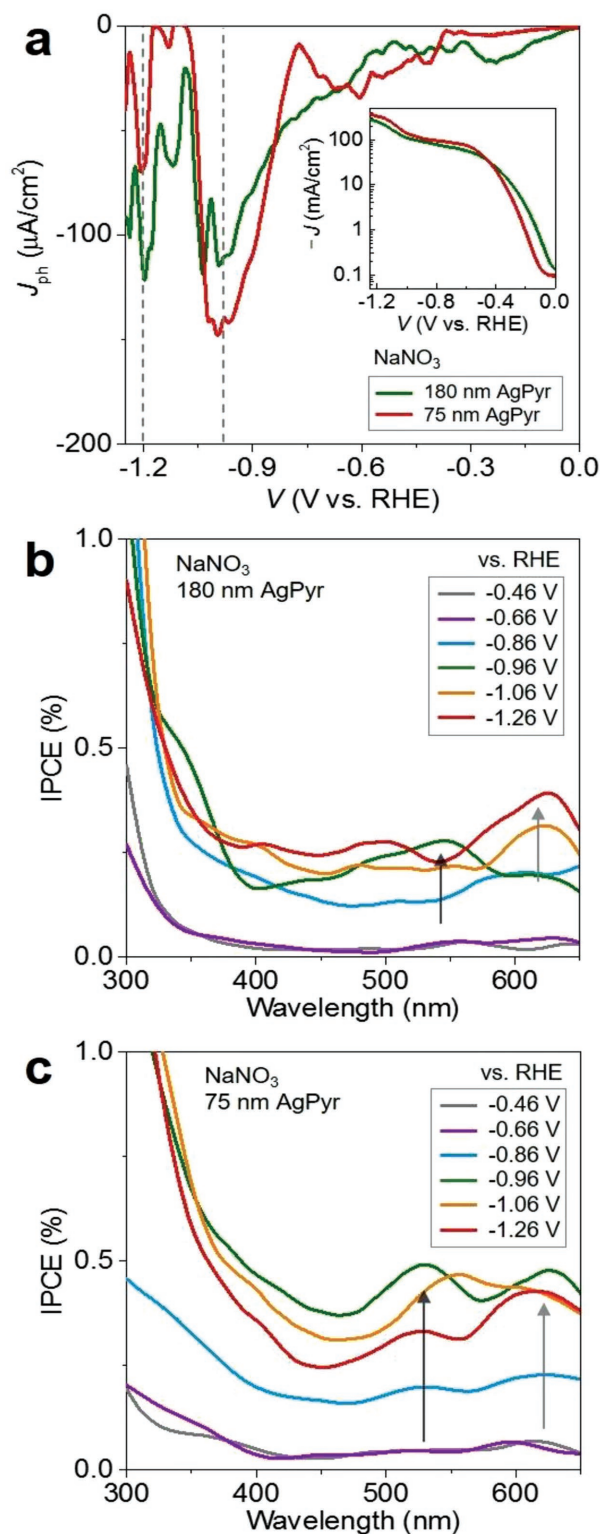


Figure 4. Photocurrent densities (J_{ph}) and IPCE in 1 M NaNO₃. a) J_{ph} measured in 1 M NaNO₃ at 180 nm AgPyr (green) and 75 nm AgPyr (red) electrodes. Inset shows current density (J) as a function of the applied potential under modulated illumination (3 Hz). 5 mV s^{−1} sweep rate was used. IPCE was measured in 1 M NaNO₃ for b) 180 nm AgPyr and c) 75 nm AgPyr as a function of applied potential.

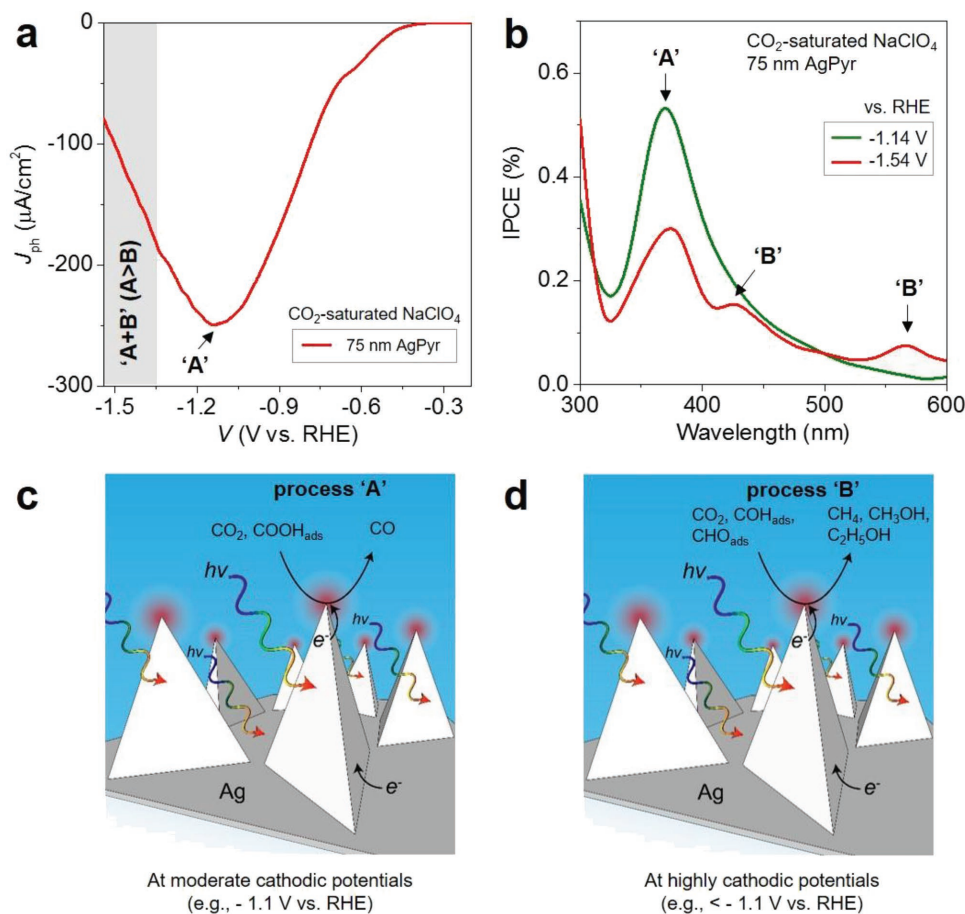
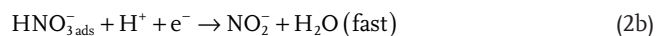
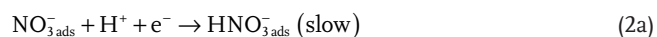
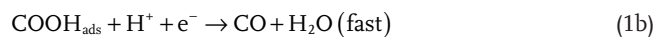
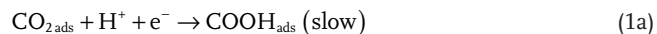


Figure 5. Photoelectrochemical reduction of CO₂ at different applied potentials. a) Photocurrent density (J_{ph}) in CO₂-saturated 0.1 M NaClO₄ on 75 nm AgPyr electrode is shown. The resonant photocurrent at ≈ -1.1 V versus RHE corresponds to process “A,” shown schematically in panel (c). The shaded area at highly cathodic potential corresponds to the combination of processes “A” and “B,” where “B” is a minor process shown in panel (d). b) IPCE measured in CO₂-saturated NaClO₄ on 75 nm AgPyr at -1.14 and -1.54 V versus RHE is demonstrated. Process “A” occurs at ≈ 360 nm and moderate cathodic potentials. Process “B” occurs at longer wavelengths (>360 nm) and highly cathodic potentials. c) In process “A,” the hot-carriers inject into CO₂ ads or COOH_{ads} at moderate cathodic potentials. d) In process “B,” the hot-carriers inject into CO₂ ads, COH_{ads}, or CHO_{ads} at highly cathodic potentials.

photocurrents, indicating that the plasmonic activity is selective toward the high-activation-barrier CO₂ and NO₃[−] reduction reactions rather than water reduction. At cathodic potentials (Figure 5) we hypothesize that plasmonically excited hot-electrons can be injected into MOs of acceptor molecules or intermediates, which are present only on the Ag electrode surface. The proposed resonant injection would occur when the energy of hot-electrons—tuned by the applied potential—aligns with the energy of the MO, analogous to the mechanism of a resonant tunneling diode. Of course, this resonant potential depends on the energy levels of the acceptor molecule, explaining why the resonant potentials and wavelengths are different for each target of photocatalytic reduction, i.e., -1.1 V and 360 nm for CO₂ reduction and -1.0 , -1.2 V, 530 nm, and 620 nm for NO₃[−] reduction. Each molecule will have its own unique attendant cascade of reductive intermediates, each with their own characteristic energy levels.

The two-electron reduction of CO₂ to CO and NO₃[−] to NO₂[−] both happen with an initial slow electron transfer followed by a second fast electron transfer^[17,18,23,31]



At highly cathodic potentials, the electron transfer rate to CO and NO₂[−] becomes competitive with their desorption rates,^[23] thereby allowing further reduced products to be formed. The additional IPCE peaks that appear at potentials < -1.2 V correspond to subsequent (>2) electron transfer and formation of CH₄, CH₃OH, and C₂H₅OH or NO, N₂, and NH₄⁺ for CO₂ and NO₃[−] reduction, respectively.^[23,26,30] CO and NO₂[−] together with NO or carbene (COH_{ads})^[23] become intermediates in this extended reaction pathway toward these new reduction products^[3,17,30] (Figure 5b). While we cannot currently confirm the identity of

charge acceptor species during photoreduction of either CO₂ or NO₃[−], our IPCE data are most consistent with charge injection into adsorbed reductive intermediates, whose surface coverage change with applied voltage, rather than directly into CO₂ or NO₃[−]. Future spectroscopic studies to identify these species are certainly warranted to confirm our hypothesized mechanism for charge injection.

5. Conclusion

We hypothesize that plasmonically excited hot-electrons are injected into specific unoccupied MOs of intermediate acceptors depending on the applied potentials and the energy of hot-electrons as depicted in Figure 5, resulting in selective reduction reactions.^[32] The distinct differences in the observed resonant effects at the Ag electrode with respect to electrode potential and photon energy for CO₂ versus NO₃[−] reduction systems strongly support the proposed contention that plasmon-enhanced photoelectrochemical reduction of these species is dominated by the relationship between the electronic structure of the acceptor molecules and catalyst. The experimental results suggest that plasmonic hot-carriers indeed interact selectively with specific MO energies of acceptors, which could include adsorbed CO₂, NO₃[−], or their intermediates such as COOH_{ads} and HNO₃[−]_{ads}. This interaction can likely be tuned by variation of the electrode surface chemical composition, applied potential, wavelength of light, and plasmon resonance energy level (which can be shifted through the electrode surface geometry and material). Our results strongly suggest that understanding the influence of plasmon resonance energy alignment with charge injection energy levels may provide further guidance toward optimal plasmonic catalyst design. The possibility of achieving selectivity via plasmonic hot-carrier injection is particularly important for CO₂ reduction on hydrocarbon-producing composite photocatalysts such as Ag-Cu, which can produce a range of hydrocarbon products, such as CH₄, C₂H₄, and C₂H₆O.^[33] Further studies, including potential-dependent CO₂ reduction product analysis, are needed to determine which mechanism is responsible for the observed catalysis. Future studies could also increase the area density of plasmonic structures to see an even more pronounced photocurrent effect.

Importantly, this concept can be extended to any electrochemical reaction limited by high overpotentials, where the interaction between the energy of plasmonic hot-carriers and intermediate molecules can be controlled at the molecular level. The hot-carrier injection to MOs or plasmonically induced strong local electric fields might additionally tune the binding energy of acceptors on a catalyst surface,^[14,34] opening new mechanistic pathways. Thus, plasmonically excited hot-carriers are a promising new approach to overcome kinetic barriers of challenging electrochemical reactions and potentially improve their selectivity and faradaic efficiency.

6. Experimental Section

Nanopyramid Electrode Fabrication: A circular glass substrate (19 mm diameter and 0.5 mm thick, ProSciTech) was cleaned using acetone and

isopropyl alcohol followed by washing in ultrapure water (Milli-Q) and then exposure to air plasma for 3 min. The air plasma cleaning enhances the adhesion of metals on the glass. A thin film of Ag/Ti (30 nm/3 nm) was deposited using an e-beam evaporator through a shadow mask having a dumbbell-like shape (see the Supporting Information). This thin film Ag electrode was tested as the “smooth” Ag electrode, and it was used as the base for deposition of nanopyramids.

A solution was prepared by mixing 20 mL of aqueous 1.7% (v/v) polystyrene (PS) bead suspension with 10 μ L of 4% (v/v) Triton X-100. 740 nm diameter PS beads (Thermo-Scientific 5074A) or 310 nm diameter PS beads (Thermo-Scientific 5031A) were used to prepare water suspensions. A monolayer of close-packed PS beads was deposited on the Ag/Ti/glass substrate by withdrawing the substrate from the PS suspension at a 45° angle at a rate of 50 μ m min^{−1}.^[22,35] The layer of PS beads was used as a mask for Ag e-beam evaporation. The PS close-packed bead film has triangular openings into which the nanopyramids form during Ag deposition. To enlarge the openings in the 310 nm PS beads the film was etched by O₂ plasma for 270 s at 150 W.^[36]

The optimal Ag deposition thickness that filled the apex of the pyramid without covering the beads was determined after several trials. 75 nm of Ag was deposited over the 310 nm polystyrene beads and 180 nm of Ag was deposited over the 740 nm beads. The polystyrene beads were then dissolved in tetrahydrofuran leaving behind 75 or 180 nm Ag nanopyramids arranged in a hexagonal pattern on a Ag film. 75 nm AgPyr has approximately fivefold higher density of nanopyramids per Ag-base surface area than 180 nm AgPyr.

Photoelectrochemical Measurements: Three different aqueous electrolytes were used in this study: 1) CO₂-saturated 0.1 M sodium perchlorate (NaClO₄, Alfa Aesar 98–102%) (pH = 4.1), 2) Ar-saturated 0.1 M NaClO₄ (pH = 9.1), and 3) 1 M sodium nitrate (NaNO₃, Sigma-Aldrich >99%) (pH = 5.7). All chemicals were used without further purification. Solutions were made using 18 M Ω purified water (Millipore system). The electrolyte was purged with CO₂ or Ar (Praxair 5.0 grade, purifier from Valco Instruments Co. Inc.) along with vigorous stirring for 30 min prior to the experiment. Electrochemical measurements were conducted in a single-compartment three-electrode glass cell fitted with a quartz window. An Ag/AgCl 3 M KCl (BASi) was used as the reference electrode and a platinum wire served as the counter electrode.

The working electrode potential was controlled by an SP-300 (Bio-Logic) potentiostat. All potentials presented here are referred to the RHE. LSV scans were performed at 5 mV s^{−1} while stirring and continuously bubbling the appropriate gas. A working electrode was illuminated by 300 W Xe lamp (Oriel) mechanically modulated at a frequency of 3 Hz. The total light density on the sample was measured to be \approx 850 mW cm^{−2}. The potentiostat was connected to a lock-in amplifier (SRS 850) to extract the photocurrent generated by the intermittent light. The “dark” current and photocurrent densities were calculated with regard to the geometric surface area (0.5 cm²), which is identical to the cross section of light incident on the surface.

Supporting Information

Supporting Information is available from the Wiley Online Library or from the author.

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Conflict of Interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Keywords

Ag electrodes, CO₂, NO₃[−] reduction, photo-electrocatalysis, surface plasmons

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